Journal of Educational Sociology

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

| Editorial | 531 |
|--|-----|
| The Scope and Function of a School of Education | |
| John W. Withers | 538 |
| Organized Field Service in a School of Education | |
| Francis J. Brown | 547 |
| Special Services of the Institute of | |
| Education Ned H. Dearborn | 554 |
| Viewpoints Related to Supervisory Instructional Service . | 561 |
| Advisory Service Related to Curriculum | |
| Revision Alonzo F. Myers | 580 |
| Conference Service for Laymen in Education Ned H. Dearborn | 586 |
| Lecture and Consultation Service Related to Teacher | |
| Groups Robert K. Speer | 590 |
| In-Service Training of Teachers A. F. Mayhew | 595 |
| A Selected and Annotated Bibliography of Periodical | |
| Literature on In-Service Education of Teachers | 700 |
| Noble F. Greenhill | 378 |
| Contributors' Page | 602 |

The Journal of Educational Sociology

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

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THE JOURNAL is published by the Journal of Educational Sociology from September to May inclusive. Editorial office, Room 42, Press Building, New York University, New York City.

Publication and business office, 883 Broadway, Albany, N. Y.

The subscription price is \$3.00 per year; the price of single copies is 35 cents. Orders for less than half a year will be charged at the single-copy rate.

Entered as second-class matter September 12, 1927, at the Post Office at Albany, New York, under the Act of March 3, 1879.

PRINTED IN THE U.S. A.

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The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

VOL. V

MAY, 1932

No. 9

EDITORIAL

Educational sociology, while dealing essentially with educational data, scientifically conceived and evaluated, also involves the consideration of the data applied in practice and particularly an evaluation of practice in the light of research in the field. Therefore, the editors of The Journal of Educational Sociology are eager to present striking practices which represent programs sociologically conceived and intelligently carried out.

With this purpose in mind we have at times presented in these columns programs of character education, health education, narcotic education, child guidance, and the like, because the practical programs in these fields represent the application of the science of educational sociology at its best. In this issue we are presenting a study of the field service of a university in the continued education of the public-school staff. Professor Ned H. Dearborn, a specialist in this field, is sponsor for this issue and has presented a discussion of the purposes of such a service in so effective a manner that we quote from him as follows:

Public education is a social institution in this country. Prolonged and systematic education has long been recognized as an essential in the development of a democratic society; its importance to social progress is no longer questioned. Because American people have so much faith in

systematic education they spend millions of dollars annually in the support of public schools. By far the most important single factor in the scheme of American public education is the teacher. The term teacher is used here to include any professional worker in the field of education. The education of teachers has been given public recognition and support for nearly a century. Teacher education is a matter of the utmost importance to the American people in view of the social significance of public education to a democratic form of society and in view of the fact that our millions of public-school teachers are also members of our society.

The education of teachers extends far beyond the boundaries of mere pedagogy. It is not enough to think only of the vocational aspects of teacher education. To be satisfied with nothing more than good craftsmanship is belittling the high purposes of the profession of teaching. In a very real sense a teacher is the guardian of our social order; he is always in the spotlight of public scrutiny; he is judged by the influence he exerts in the development of youth, morally, intellectually, and physically; and his values are also assessed in terms of the nature and amount of his active participation in the important affairs of life outside the school. The field of education is unsurpassed in its opportunity to serve humanity. The privileges and responsibilities of teachers in rendering professional service to social progress are accompanied, it should be remembered, by the privileges and responsibilities of teachers in the advancement of human welfare through participation in nonprofessional community activities. Parallels to this double obligation can be found in other walks of life. The profession of law gives a large number of men and women to prominent public service. It is true that those chosen for public service have been proficient in their vocation, but in addition they have shown ability to solve problems in other fields, problems not limited to the interests of single clients. Their profession lends itself to wide and varied contacts with life. The medical profession has similar opportunities to study human nature. A physician must, of course, be a successful technician but his influence is far more extensive if he is the confidant of his patients on all matters and if he is an active, public-spirited man. So the illustrations might be multiplied. The teacher who is not a student of human nature and public affairs fails to measure up to the responsibilities of the profession and neglects the obligations resting on all educators to contribute whenever, wherever, and however possible to the advancement of civilization. The education of teachers, therefore, falls into two general divisions; namely, education for professional service and education for life outside the vocational demands made on teachers.

The first function of a program of teacher education is to provide a reasonable mastery of the subject matter to be used and of related subject matter. This statement smacks of triteness and a charge of guilt could be sustained were it not for the last phrase of the sentence. Exact knowledge of a given field of learning is essential but it must not be ritualistic nor catechetical. A facility in the use of pertinent information is desirable but factual knowledge which lacks an acquaintanceship with causes and results or, putting the matter in another way, which neglects interpretation is far below a desirable standard. A teacher of English literature in a high school, for example, will have a respectable task to perform in securing an acceptable survey knowledge (acceptable from the standpoint of thorough scholarship) of English prose and poetry to say nothing of plumbing the depths of a given period or type Nevertheless, the ideal of scholarship must of either. obtain. Not only must the high-school teacher in the field of English literature master English literature but he should also know American, French, German, Italian, Russian, Scandinavian, and other great literatures. There are similarities and contrasts to be drawn from these fields which will aid him as a teacher of English literature. Furthermore, he should know the social, political, and economic history of the people whose literature he is helping high-school students enjoy and understand. In this connection science, philosophy, and religion must not be neglected. Briefly, the demands upon a teacher in any field require a broad and deep reservoir of knowledge which may serve not only its regular daily needs as a classroom teacher but which may be used as an emergency supply of information and understanding. Parallelism, comparison, and contrast are effective in their proper time and place in teaching. Hence, the need for a reasonable mastery of related subject matter in addition to scholarship in a given

field of knowledge.

The second function of teacher education is to assist each prospective teacher in the formulation of a definite philosophy of education. This is, after all, a practical application of a philosophy of life to a special field of service. Human beings are guided, even though unconsciously, by some standards of conduct. He who knows his purposes, outlines a plan of action, and executes a program of daily conduct in terms of his plans and purposes achieves his goal. If the ways and means are worthy then he, as a contributor to the advancement of civilization, becomes a ruling power. He is listed among the outstanding characters of history. Statesmen, jurists, authors, philosophers, scientists, painters, sculptors, physicians, and teachers comprise the bulk of humanity's great leaders. Fortuitous circumstances, opportunities, and fate fail to explain the eminence of any of the great figures in human history. On the contrary their lives were directed by worthy purposes, distinguished by definite plans, and made effective by an efficient program of action. Education, as he fundamental basis of social progress, must have that sind of leadership and the followership must have an inelligent appreciation of the purposes, plans, and programs idvocated by the leaders. Hence the importance of a lefinite philosophy of life and of its application to the ield of education.

The third function is to provide a thorough understandng of child nature. Scholasticism is giving way to humanism. The humanism of today is not empty sentiment. It is a recognition of individual rights and responsibilities. It calls for functional learning in the real world in which human beings live. So in addition to knowing the world in which we have our being it becomes necessary to know the human material with which we hope to make today or tomorrow better than yesterday. In pedagogical parlance this knowledge of child nature is called educational psychology. The teacher must understand the physical, mental, and emotional aspects of child development if stimulation, encouragement, and guidance are to be effective in child growth.

The fourth function is development of powers of evalu-This is nothing more or less than the application of a philosophy of life or of a philosophy of education to the task at hand. Knowing materials and child nature, and possessing a working philosophy of life, the teacher then fares the obligations of selection. What subject matter wili function now or later (or now and later)? How can it be organized most usefully? What teaching methods will be most effective? When shall a child be introduced to this, that, or the other? To what extent shall repetition occur? What of overlapping? Of coordination or integration? Where shall fact finding or memorization leave off and interpretation begin? What about problem solving? Habit formation? Teaching is far more than what to do or how to do it. It involves the why of all Thus curriculum construction and methods of teaching become something more than routine matters. "Tricks of the trade" is not enough. Nothing short of broad and deep and extensive education can be acceptable.

The fifth function of teacher education is ethical training. This phase of education is based on ideals of conduct concerned with three relationships: (1) those among members of the profession, (2) those between teachers and parents and other laymen, and (3) those between teachers and pupils. Rumor has it that a certain position will be vacant soon. What should the eager and ambitious appli-

cant for that position do in this case? A parent raises some doubt regarding the values of a certain phase of the school program. How should the teacher react to this A pupil may voice strong opposition to the viewpoint expressed by the teacher or found in a textbook. What is the ethical procedure for the teacher to follow? Unfortunately, home education, active participation in community affairs, or observation of professional workers in other fields do not always enable the prospective teacher to decide wisely in such cases. "Common sense" is not always a reliable guide. Where does the responsibility lie to provide instruction of this kind? Clearly in programs of teacher education. Thus, as there is a code among gentlemen, ethical standards in other professions, and ideals of conduct for the everyday world, there must be an ethical code for the profession of teaching. It must be founded on ideals consciously formulated and on habits

of action grounded in reflections and practice.

The sixth and last function in this classification of teacher education is education for life outside the classroom. It is related to the second of the two general classifications on teacher education mentioned earlier in this chapter. The five points mentioned above relate to the vocational interests of teachers. There are, however, many obligations that make their demands in the nonvocational or avocational life of teachers. Social life in homes, community problems, economic, political, and social questions that reach beyond neighborhood or local community boundaries-all of these call for wide information, varied and many intellectual interests, skillful exercise of well-developed habits, and a sense of responsibility as vital units in a social order. Education for teaching that neglects these demands falls short of the mark. True professional education and nonvocational education have mutual values for the purposes of each, but these purposes will be realized more effectively if the program of teacher education sets up one group of studies directed primarily to the ends of one and another group to the ends of the other. Furthermore, the teacher who establishes himself as a valuable member of society, apart from his profession, commands a degree of respect, admiration, esteem, and confidence that inevitably wins continued and substantial lay support for organized education. His work as a teacher, therefore, becomes increasingly effective as he merits the badge of worthy community membership.

The foregoing statements of function presuppose a program of continuous education for teachers irrespective of the length of the pre-service program of education. Both pre-service and in-service education follow the lines of professional and nonvocational education in the total educational needs of any teacher. From the standpoint of professional education, it is clear even to the casual observer of the educational process that the science of education is changing so rapidly, periodic and systematic attempts to keep abreast of the times are essential to the professional life of the alert teacher. On the side of nonvocational education, it is also clear that the development of intellectual interests, the extension of the boundaries of knowledge, and the increased understanding of the work in which we live have no end. Hence the need for a program of in-service teacher education that is continuous and is coordinate with the pre-service program. Preliminary education and preparation of those in service are inseparable. A program of teacher education so conceived has no end.

THE SCOPE AND FUNCTION OF A SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

JOHN W. WITHERS

A school of education which is an integral part of a great university should be a professional school of the highest order on a par with the best professional schools of law, medicine, etc. Like these professional schools, it is concerned with the extension of knowledge and the improvement of service in one of the great fundamental interests of modern life. As a primary social concern education is now regarded and is destined to be increasingly regarded as of equal importance with the administration of justice and the promotion of public health.

The direct annual cost of education, both public and private, to the people of the United States is now well over two and one-half billions of dollars, and the total amount invested in educational institutions of all sorts is greater than the combined investment in the ten largest

industries in the United States.

The field of service of a school of education is, therefore, the professional study and improvement of education as one of the fundamental interests with which modern life is concerned. The scope of its professional responsibility is the whole field of education, in school and out of school, from the lowest level to the highest level, and from the beginning of life to the end of life, as an individual concern and as a community concern. The school of education, therefore, is vastly more than a school of methods concerned merely with specialized techniques involved in the successful teaching of children in the elementary and secondary schools.

A school of education is not a college or a graduate school of arts and sciences. Its primary concern is not merely the extension of knowledge and the promotion of culture for their own sake. It is concerned with a philosophy of life and the evaluation of human interests, activities, and appreciations, with truth and the methods by which truth is attained, but not solely with truth considered merely as an end in itself. It is primarily interested in truth as a reliable means for the attainment of the values that are regarded as fundamental and essential.

It is evident, therefore, that an institution having such functions and responsibilities must concern itself with the meaning and trends of modern life in all of its major interests if it is to have any reliable and worth-while conception of the part which education is playing and should play. It is not concerned merely with how education should be taught; it is also concerned with what should be taught, and why it should be taught. It endeavors to understand the nature, possibilities, and limitations of individuals as educable beings, and the nature and extent of those social pressures, both outside and inside the established institutions of education, that bring about the reconstruction and the progressive adaptation and improvement of them.

In colleges and also in graduate schools of arts and sciences the extension of knowledge and the discovery and dissemination of truth are the matters of primary concern. But education as we are concerned with it in the school of education is something of even greater importance. As Albert Guerard has said in a recent issue of Scribner's, "Science is spiritually bankrupt in the midst of its material triumph, for science lends her services to the war-monger, the racketeer, the concocter of fiendish drugs as serenely as to the humanitarian. We have raised the question whether the good in its traditional sense be invariably true. We are pretty certain that the true is frequently not good at all."

The truth has, of course, direct as well as indirect value. It satisfies one of the fundamental hungers of human life: the hunger to know, the desire to know, and the urge to discover. This is an end most worthy in itself and one that fully justifies the enormous expenditure of time, energy, and money now devoted to research in the United States, outside as well as inside our colleges and universities.

The school of education is deeply interested in this aspect of the value of truth. The extension of truth in this sense is, for it, a vital concern, but not its chief concern. Its chief interest is in the uses to which truth, both new and old, may be put, the values that may be realized through its application, and the nature and relative importance of these values. It is deeply interested in the discovery of new truth concerning all the means, processes, agencies, and results of education; but its primary interest is in the practical improvement of these instruments, processes, and results. In this sense truth is an instrument to be used, not an end in itself. It is, therefore, a relative matter, both in its nature and in the manner of its application. It is an instrument that needs to be adjusted to the purposes which are to be realized through its practical use. As a reliable instrument it has a wider application, sometimes, than others. Even in the physical sciences, truth as a useful instrument is relative to the degree of refinement involved in the attempt to apply it. The refinements that are now possible in the study of radiation show clearly that the Newtonian theory of gravitation is not a law in the sense that it is universally true of the physical world as science now reveals it. Shall we say, then, that this law must be discarded because it is untrue? Is it not in fact still true, reliable, and valuable in dealing with the physical world within the degree of refinement of observation with which all but a very few persons in the world are practically concerned? Let it not be forgotten that the planet Neptune was discovered, its existence made known, and its exact location mathematically determinded by the use of this law before that planet was actually seen through a telescope by any human being.

Again, the revelations of modern physics show that space is not, apparently, actually Euclidian, and that the geometry of Euclid based upon the use of the Euclidian theory of parallel lines is probably not absolutely true of reality. Shall we, then, cease to teach Euclid because it can no longer be regarded as a system of absolute, eternal,

and universal truth as it once was? Shall we discard it as having no real value? Sir James Jeans has recently published a book entitled *The Mysterious Universe*. Many of us have been fascinated by it. It is, indeed, a mysterious universe in which we live. But the most mysterious being in this universe is man himself. It is with knowledge of this being that we, as educators, are primarily concerned. The knower is even more fascinatingly mysterious than the universe that he knows.

Through millions of years the human organism has been evolving by a selective process that is still going on. Structures have developed within this organism that select and respond to certain influences in the universal environment with which it is surrounded and reject others. Within the organism as a whole these structures and their reactions are more or less perfectly correlated and coördinated, and through their natural functioning certain needs have developed, some of which find expression in the form of hungers that demand satisfaction. Some of these hungers are distinctly conscious while others are only vaguely so. It is possible and probable that some of them are not present in consciousness at all, even in the form of vague feeling of well- or ill-being. Be that as it may, it seems quite certain that none of these hungers that are essential to the well-being of the human organism as a whole can be safely ignored without danger and the possible destruction, sooner or later, of the organism itself.

Education, then, as we must think of it, is concerned with the whole organism. When we say that the whole child must be sent to school and dealt with in our effort to educate him, we utter a truth the full significance of which possibly no one of us fully appreciates. Of the child's bodily organism the educator needs to have such knowledge as physics and chemistry may supply, but he needs vastly more than this. Like the rest of the so-called physical or material universe, the child's body is composed of chemical compounds, of atoms and electrons; but the importance of such knowledge, from the point of view

of the needs of the educator, is very meager, indeed. Much more important is knowledge of the operation of the structures that perform the function of selection and response to the forces and influences involved in the effort at satisfactory adjustment to the external environment. These structures are much more numerous and even fundamentally more important than the organs of sense, such as sight, touch, hearing, etc., with which educators are usually concerned. The former are involved in adjustments which are fundamental to physical and mental health and the maintenance of life; while the latter are primarily concerned with the more immediate and obvious adjustments required in everyday life.

The human body, in its natural functioning has all along been taking account, though unconsciously, of many influences that are beyond the grasp of the organs of sense, and the hunger of the bodily organism for this form of stimulation has been so fully established that the absence of it leads to serious consequences in the physical and even

in the mental growth of the individual.

Experimental research in this whole new field is leading to other interesting and important results in medical and health education and practice. The origin and cure of certain new health disturbances and diseases which grow out of the artificial and unnatural environment of modern city and indoor life will very probably be discovered by

vigorous research in these new fields.

In all this, there is suggested a line of approach to a philosophy of education which should influence the general policy and program of the school of education. The field is a fascinating one for almost unlimited research. If we are to educate the whole child under modern conditions, we must come to understand both the child and the conditions far better than we now do. The need of such understanding is much more important and critical at the present time than in any previous period of our national history. We are concerned with an individual organism

with its natural, varied, and complex equipment and its corresponding hungers for active expression built out of selective processes that have been going on through the ages. The normal, synchronized, and coördinated activity of this organism is essential to its physical, mental, and spiritual health. Activities of every sort, essential to this end, must, therefore, be recognized and the corresponding hungers for expression, whatever they are, appropriately considered. Prolonged neglect, understimulation, overindulgence, disproportionate or discordant expression, should, so far as possible, be avoided.

The supreme values sought are not all to be found in satisfying the desire to know and the desire to do. Those which find expression in feeling or emotion, however vague, must also be recognized. Failure at this point is perhaps the greatest present weakness in American education.

What has been said up to this point is evidently in essential harmony with the underlying philosophy of what is now called the creative movement in present-day education. However, the complexity, variability, and accelerated speed of the modern social, economic, and civic environment into which the child is immersed when he leaves school makes the full realization of this point of view difficult.

Because of the marvelous results of scientific research and ingenious invention, the influences of this total environment that are now brought within the range of clear, conscious discrimination have been vastly increased. At the same time, the artificiality of the environment in which much of our lives is spent, especially in urban communities, is such as to prevent the natural stimulation and effect of other influences to which the human organism has long grown accustomed and for which it has developed an essential need. The influence upon physical health of the ultra-violet rays of the sun already referred to is an example of this. At the same time, this same urban environment provides various forms of artificial and hurtful overstimulation. This is not infrequently true of the environment in school as well as of that outside.

Because of the numerous inventions and their application in our modern machine economy, this is sometimes spoken of as a jazz age. Some one has likened it to the effect produced by a ship with a cargo of musical instruments that has been wrecked on a far-away island. inhabitants of the island have come down to the ship and each one has begun blowing, pounding, or plucking one of these instruments, so that the din that is being produced is far from the harmony of a well-organized orchestra. We are indulging ourselves in numerous ways in trying out most of our new instruments of expression that are now available and have not yet learned how to bring the results into any sort of harmony, either individual or social. ciety as a whole in its progress at present is indulging in a trial and error, or, if you prefer, a trial and success method of procedure. This, after all, is a fundamental condition of progress. If we are naturally optimistic, as I believe we should be, as to the fundamental capacity of our people to bring, ultimately, order out of chaos, we may indulge the hope that in the not distant future we may develop our activities into the harmony of a fine orchestra, rather than continue as merely a jazz band.

Looking back over our national history, one sees clearly that in our progress up to the present time we have naturally emphasized those values which come from encouraging the desire to know and to do, with special emphasis upon gaining certain desirable controls over our physical environment. The problem has been primarily that of developing and appropriating to various desirable uses the rich natural resources of our physical environment. cordingly, in education we have emphasized the discovery and dissemination of knowledge of this physical world and the development of behavior controls in the most effective use and application of that knowledge. Our educational institutions responding to this fundamental social interest have, therefore, consciously or unconsciously shaped their curricula and instructional procedure in relation to this demand. The effort has been to furnish the individual with knowledge and the ability to use it effectively in the solution of problems. We have been too little concerned with questions that have to do with the kinds of problems which individuals so educated will desire to solve, whether those problems are of value to society in general or not.

As already pointed out, problems in which the individual may be most interested in solving are those of the racketeer, the concocter and seller of fiendish drugs, and the utilization of such instruments for the promotion of selfish purposes and the degradation of other individuals to that end. Some of the most brilliant minds at the present time profiting by their education so far as knowledge and the ability to use it are concerned are engaged in such harmful activities as racketeering, robbing, kidnaping, and social crimes in general.

Recognition of this fact is bringing about emphasis upon character education and the need of promoting, so far as possible, through our institutions of learning, those outcomes which promote physical, mental, social, civic, and spiritual health and well-being in the community as well as in the individual citizen. A school of education, therefore, whose fundamental purpose is individual and social service through education, must, in preparing men and women to serve in various capacities to that end, avail itself intelligently as far as possible of all materials that throw light upon the nature of this problem and the manner of its successful solution.

In what I have said thus far, I have endeavored to state and emphasize one of the fundamental functions of a school of education which is identified with a great university; namely, the promulgation, as far as it can, of an educational philosophy that is in harmony with the essential spirit and needs of present-day life. The primary aim of such a school should be to assist, as far as possible, in the solution of the problems of modern education, especially of American education. In its effort to accomplish this aim, it should take advantage of its relation to the

other schools and colleges of the university by utilizing as fully as possible their resources in cordial and mutually helpful coöperation. Obviously, many of the types of investigations indicated in what I have said are not confined to the school of education, but extend beyond its boundaries into the legitimate fields of instruction and research of other divisions. There should be an especially close coöperative relationship between the faculty and the work of the school of education and those of the graduate and undergraduate divisions of arts and sciences.

In addition to the effort to determine and promote a sound philosophy of education suited to modern conditions, the aim of the school of education requires at least three other principal lines of effort. (1) The professional education and training of teachers, supervisors, administrators, and others employed in the various types of service needed in education at all levels from pre-kindergarten to university, including adult education. As a professional school, no part or activity of the whole field of education is beyond its interests. (2) Research, both pure and applied, and the publication, determination, and use of the results of research, not only of its own faculty and students, but also of other agencies. (3) Field service in the way of cooperative study of local school problems in cooperation with those who are in responsible charge, including counsel and professional advice, lectures, courses for the education of those in service, individual and group conferences, surveys, and committee service.

Such, in brief, are some, though by no means all, of the appropriate functions of a university school of education.

ORGANIZED FIELD SERVICE IN A SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Francis J. Brown

The term "organized field service" is interpreted, for purposes of this article, as all activities both on the campus and in the field conducted by the school of education for teachers in service. This definition excludes the two fields of pre-service teaching and summer sessions.

To many persons the term field service is synonymous with extension; that is, courses offered through class instruction and correspondence. Several factors contribute to this misconception: correspondence and extension were the first organized agencies to be developed; due to the competitive aspect, they are the types of service given most publicity through catalogues and bulletins, and they have been commercialized through utilizing credits thus earned as a basis of salary increments.

The purpose of this article is threefold: first, to point out and specifically illustrate the wide variety of types of services rendered to teachers in service; second, to describe certain administrative aspects of such service; and finally, to present a body of recommendations based upon an analysis of present practices and evaluations of field service submitted by superintendents of schools.

TYPES OF FIELD SERVICE

Organized Courses: In 1930-1931, approximately 165,-000 teachers in the United States enrolled in one or more courses offered by 138 colleges and universities. This means that one in seven of the teachers availed themselves of this opportunity for professional growth. These courses may be grouped under five major classifications: intramural extension, extramural extension, field courses, correspondence, and radio.

By intramural is meant those courses offered on the campus, usually in late afternoon, evening, and Saturday

morning, planned primarily for teachers in service. Dr. Richard R. Price, director of University Extension, University of Minnesota, writes of this development:

It is no longer necessary to combat the medieval fetish that there is something sacred about the daytime hours so far as classwork is concerned, and that there is something diabolically unholy and uncanny about the hours after dark, that make them unfit for the use of a classroom teacher.¹

It is impossible to present actual figures of the number of students taking advantage of this type of service, but of the three major types—campus, extramural, and correspondence—Mr. Debatin² in his analysis of the extension offerings of 41 colleges and universities which belong to the National University Extension Association found that 21 institutions were offering 1,296 courses on the campus.

Extramural extension includes a wide variety of relationships with the university, varying from work offered in definitely established centers with separate administrative offices and teaching staff, to isolated courses offered either by an itinerant extension staff member who spends his time traveling over a definite circuit and meeting each class in rotation or by a resident member of the university staff who goes out once a week to give a single course in a near-by community. The first is illustrated by the University of Indiana which has permanent centers at Indianapolis, Fort Wayne, and Gary, and by Iowa State Teachers College with local centers in every section of the State. Pennsylvania State College and Illinois State Teachers College illustrate the second with a staff employed specifically to travel about the State; the third type—the single course in a near-by community—is so common as to need no specific illustration.

The courses offered in both types of extension, for the most part closely parallel those given in regular day classes, with some special adaptation to the needs of the field. There is a preponderance of purely professional as con-

¹ Richard R. Price, "Purpose of University Extension," Proceedings, National University Extension Association, 1924, p. 8.

² Frank M. Debatin, "The Extension Teaching Staff," op. cit., 1929, pp. 64-78.

trasted with subject-matter courses, and perhaps an undue number of courses in method.

Correspondence work is offered in 31 of the 41 institutions studied by Mr. Debatin. It was first admitted to the academic circle at the University of Chicago in 1892 and has continued to develop more rapidly in the Middle and Far West. In a study of 30 colleges and universities in the North Atlantic section³ only seven offered work by correspondence and, of these, two give it on a noncredit basis only. Perhaps the best illustration of correspondence is still the University of Chicago.

During the forty years the University of Chicago has conducted correspondence courses, it has provided instruction by mail to more than 60,000 adult students. In 1902, 90 per cent of the 4,334 students then enrolled were teachers. That percentage has gradually decreased and in 1930-1931 approximately 50 per cent of the 6,225 enrolled were teachers. Of the 746 students who completed their courses at the end of the summer quarter, September 30, 1931, 369 or 49.5 per cent were teachers in service.

Field courses represent a comparatively new development, that is, provision for the student in the field to carry out under guidance a program of individual reading or research with only occasional reports to the instructor or adviser. In the North Atlantic section but 5 of the 30 institutions provided for such service. Although there are administrative difficulties in the maintenance of equivalent standards, this type of course offers genuine possibilities in its adaptability to the needs of the individual student.

The newest addition to the academic circle is the course given by radio. Thus far it has made comparatively little advance in the field of formal instruction in education courses, although courses have been given by the University of Florida and the University of Wisconsin, to cite only two instances. Enormous development has been made in the use of radio programs in the classroom and as an

Francis J. Brown, "An Evaluation of Extra-mural Courses," Journal of Administration and Supervision (January 1932), pp. 13-20.

instrument for adult education, but it has not fulfilled the enthusiastic prediction that it would supplant the college.

Other Types of Service: It is impossible, within the limits of this article, to enumerate all of the types of service rendered by schools of education to teachers. A few of the more representative activities will be given and the variety of the services indicated under each will be suggested.

The radio, while used comparatively little for formal professional courses, is however one of the most important field services rendered by the school of education. Through its direct introduction into the classrooms of the public schools it has not only been an agent in the instruction of children but through the wide variety of materials presented and the techniques used has compelled teachers to broaden their own background of knowledge and improve their methods. To select but one institution from the twenty-seven large universities that broadcast educational programs, we shall again choose the first to provide such service, the University of Wisconsin. The Wisconsin Teachers Association and the University of Wisconsin Radio Station WHA have joined hands in effecting a comprehensive program for radio education. Each school day at 9.35 a.m. and 2.10 p.m. a different subject is broadcast to the schools of the State.4 Granting that the difficult "war" with commercial stations can be won and that the control of the programs can be kept under the surveillance of professional educators, this type of field service presents possibilities beyond the reaches of the imagination.

A second type of field service in some respects closely allied with the first is that of supplying and distributing visual aids. As in the case of radio, the larger proportion of the material is for use in the classroom. The budgets for visual education of 17 colleges and universities reporting vary from \$100 to \$24,675 for the year 1929-1930.

Harold A. Engel, "The World's Oldest Educational Radio Station Carries On," Education by Radio, I, 40 (December 31, 1931).
 Proceedings, National University Extension Association, Vol. 14, 1931, p. 89.

Here again is an extremely important field service which schools of education can and should render, and which has not been utilized to the extent to which it is possible in the improvement of classroom instruction.

A third type of field service is that of the library. This varies from the loan of single books to individual teachers to the preparation of carefully selected lists and the circulation of traveling libraries for teachers through the schools within the area served by the university. In 1926-1927 the University of Indiana sent out 5,801 package libraries, a considerable proportion of the persons thus served being teachers.

Another field service is that of research. This also varies in character from coöperative researches of fundamental educational problems such as that carried on in the field of character education by the School of Education, Yale University, or the permanent curriculum committees in Iowa, the conduct of educational surveys such as those conducted by Teachers College, Columbia, to the "borrowing" of children to procure data for a prospective Ph.D. Carefully and coöperatively planned research is one of the major field services which the school of education should render. Dr. Trabue sums up the value of this type of research as follows:

University research is of value to public-school administration whenever it:

- 1. Results in a better evaluation of and a clearer understanding of the programs, practices, methods, materials, or techniques employed in the school.
- 2. Originates or develops more effective materials, methods, programs, or techniques than the schools have previously possessed.
 - 3. Makes possible a reduction in unit costs.6

These values imply a twofold function of the school of education in the field of research, that is, the conduct of the research itself, and its interpretation to the teachers in service.

⁴ M. R. Trabue, "University Research and Its Value to Public School Administration," Yearbook, National Education Association, Vol. 67, 1929, p. 729.

A fifth service rendered by the school of education to the field is that of lecture service. This may be a consecutive series of addresses or discussions as the ones conducted by Pennsylvania State College in conjunction with the institutes, or it may be isolated lectures. Dr. Bittner⁷ reports that exclusive of agricultural education, 2,026,000 persons were reached in 1919 through university lectures. It is impossible to estimate the per cent of this number who were teachers, but, undoubtedly, a very large proportion of the total teaching staff of our public schools is reached annually through such lectures. It is imperative that the faculty of the school of education be prepared to render such service and in such a way as to present in clear, forceful, and meaningful language the best in educational developments.

Two other types of service, although separately administered in most institutions, are so closely allied as to be discussed together, that is, placement and follow-up service. The former activity has developed largely within the last decade and even now is frequently conceived of as completing its responsibility to the student when it has succeeded in procuring for him his first contract. If, however, the placement bureau is to function adequately it must be an integral part of the follow-up service of the school of education, keep in close contact with the graduates, know their success or failure and what factors have contributed to it, and transfer them up or down the ladder of professional advancement as their success in the field warrants such change.

The program of follow-up now carried on includes everything from casual letters written by the teacher, reports prepared by the institution and filled in either by the teacher himself or by his supervisor, to a carefully planned series of observations of the teacher's work in the classroom followed by constructively critical conferences with the teacher and, if desirable, the principal or supervisor.

⁷ W. S. Bittner, The University Extension Movement (Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Education, 1919), p. 28.

The University of Wisconsin, to cite again but one example, illustrates the latter type of follow-up service.

The University of Wisconsin plan of follow-up is to make each graduate a member of the University Bureau of Follow-up Service during at least her first two years of actual teaching. The aim of this service is to afford the teacher help in solving her classroom problems. This help is given through visits by some one who knows the field in which she is working, by conferences and by correspondence.8

The final type of field service to be presented in any detail is that of conferences. These may be classified into four kinds, group conferences at the university or in the field and individual conferences at the university or in the field. The first is illustrated by the "Schoolman's Week" at the University of Pennsylvania, the Western Convention District meeting at the University of Pittsburgh, and the Junior-High-School Conference at New York University. An illustration of the second type, group conferences in the field, is the work done at Pennsylvania State College, which is described by Dr. Williams as follows:

Another form of institute substitute is that in which one of our regular instructors will spend from 10 to 16 days, one or two each week, in a district visiting individual teachers and holding conferences with them, attempting to solve particular local instructional plans. This type of service is rapidly replacing extension work of the earlier type and offers the best opportunities for the in-service education of teachers so far as the individual teachers are concerned.9

Other types of field-service activities include the following:

- 1. Supervisory-instructional
 - (Described on page 559 in this issue)
- 2. Participation of staff members in outside (noninstitutional) educational activities of school systems and of State
 - 3. Correspondence (other than courses)
 - 4. Pamphlets, bulletins, and other printed material
- 5. Preparation and distribution of bibliographies, teaching helps, etc.

⁸ G. A. Risden, "Supervisory Service Bureau of the University of Wisconsin," School and Society, XXVII (1928), pp. 257-258.

[•] C. O. Williams, "Study of State Wide Program of Teacher Training Extension, conducted by Pennsylvania State College," Phi Delta Kappa Thesis, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927, p. 12.

SPECIAL SERVICES OF THE INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

NED H. DEARBORN

The Institute of Education has been established in affiliation with the School of Education and the Summer School of New York University to provide professional education for teachers and those engaged in educational service throughout the United States. The general types of service which the Institute of Education is prepared to offer are as follows:

1. Courses for teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, and special workers in schools and colleges.
There are many reasons why professional courses for
teachers should be organized in centers outside of the university campus. In the first place teachers are often desirous of improving their professional abilities and of extending the boundaries of their fields of knowledge. It
is probably too often true that teachers are stimulated in
this direction by such external influences as salary increments and bonuses, college degree requirements, and certification regulations. These outside influences are to be
commended provided the primary purpose of systematic
study, namely, professional improvement, is not overlooked.

From a purely financial standpoint there is unquestioned economy in extension teaching. It is much less expensive to send an instructor from the university campus to an outside center when his time and traveling expenses are considered than it is to require thirty or more teachers to spend their time traveling to and from the campus and to pay the necessary expense involved in traveling and in living away from home. From an educational standpoint there is no reason to expect a lower standard in extension teaching than is required in campus teaching. It is true that local groups of teachers miss the educational advan-

tages that accrue from contacts with teachers from other school systems. To offset this disadvantage it can be said in favor of extension teaching that concentration on a solution of local school problems is possible in extension classes that is quite impossible in campus teaching. One of the serious questions in relation to off-campus courses for teachers is library facilities. There is ample evidence to demonstrate that library facilities can be provided that are entirely adequate for the needs of the particular group in question. There is another point in connection with extension courses for teachers that is often overlooked: namely, the advantage that comes to the faculty members of the school of education in direct contacts and knowledge of local school problems. This type of experience enables the university professor to return to his campus courses with a freshened viewpoint and with ability to provide more practical help in his campus courses than he otherwise might be able to provide. In the School of Education of New York University where there is an established policy that all faculty members shall give a portion of their regular schedule to institute work, this advantage is a very real one.

2. Educational research work in the field. This refers to studies directed by regular staff members of the School of Education with primary emphasis on the results obtained in the improvement of learning-teaching processes for the school system in which the research is conducted. This plan might properly be characterized as cooperative educational research. Under this plan the educational research is planned, conducted, and reported in coöperation with the staff members of the local school system. results are of immediate and practical help to local staff members. Under this plan some particular research is, of course, recognized locally as a real need. The local staff members are fully aware of the details of the plan, the method of conducting the research, and they participate in the discussions that lead to the conclusions stated in the report made by the representative of the School

of Education. For example, the staff members of a local school system might decide that help in reading represents one of their needs. A specialist in reading from the school of education staff is secured to plan a method of research with the staff members of the local school system that will lead to a diagnosis of reading difficulties and a set of recommendations that will improve the reading program. Too often a specialist is called in to conduct a piece of educational research, the result of which is a scholarly report, very little read by the members of the local school staff. Coöperative research seems to meet the practical needs of teachers and supervisors in this matter.

- 3. School surveys. This service means a comprehensive analysis of conditions affecting the progress of the school system and recommendations related to financial, administrative, supervisory, and instructional needs of the school system under consideration. Coöperation again is the keynote of this service. Specialists in administration and instructional problems confer with the staff members of the local school system in planning and executing the survey service. The conclusions and recommendations are made jointly with the result that no time is lost unnecessarily in the interpretation of the survey report and in putting into practice the recommendations contained therein.
- 4. Special investigations. This refers to studies related to particular phases of school work. These are limited in scope and purpose and include matters not defined as "learning-teaching" research as mentioned under 2. In contrast to the comprehensive school survey, these special investigations deal with single units of the administrative and supervisory work of the local school system. Special investigations might relate to such matters as the location of school buildings, the planning of school buildings, school-building equipment, classification of pupils, organization of the supervisory staff, teachers' salaries, personnel work, and a host of other administrative and supervisory problems that are well known to every school superintendent.

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5. Advisory relationship. In this service a member or a committee of the faculty of the School of Education may be secured for special advice on problems concerned with policy, program, organization, administration, or supervision of school work. These problems include questions of finance, buildings, personnel, pupil classification, and the like but the service does not imply the same amount of detailed investigation as is contemplated under the preceding service entitled special investigation. For example, one of the faculty members of the School of Education has been acting as a special adviser to the State normalschool faculties in Maine. These normal-school faculty members are organized in committees and are working on problems of curriculum revision in connection with the Maine program of preparing elementary-school teachers for the public schools. The adviser makes three trips annually to the State of Maine in his advisory relations with the State normal-school faculties. His work is general in character, the details of curriculum revision being left to the ingenuity and special knowledge of the various committees of the Maine normal-school faculties. other example of this type of service may be found in a committee plan of advisory relationships with city school systems. An enterprise is projected in which several specialists on the staff of the School of Education confer with committee members of a local school staff on problems of curriculum revision. Here, again, the detailed work is conducted by the staff members of the local school system, the members of the faculty of the School of Education merely serving as general advisers, giving special help and direction to the work of the local committees.

6. Conference and lecture work for laymen. This service means presenting to laymen the purposes, plans, and programs of public education through school-board associations, women's clubs, civic orders, parents' organizations, church groups, fraternal orders, and service clubs. The fundamental thought underlying this service is that schoolmen have an obligation to answer laymen's ques-

tions on education that corresponds with the right of laymen, as supporters of public education, to ask questions regarding the plans and provisions for systematic education. The School of Education further believes that lav groups in education need professional help along two lines: (1) planning programs that deal with education subjects, and (2) securing speakers that will discuss in clear and forceful language the problems of education in which laymen are and ought to be interested and well informed. The School of Education is looking forward to an increased and improved use of newspaper facilities and special school publications for lay consumption. A comprehensive plan of education for laymen is contemplated in which much greater use may be made of magazines, monographs, and books than has been made heretofore. The radio is a relatively undeveloped medium of communication between the School of Education and laymen in education. In short, the special services to laymen anticipate, first, the selection of those topics in the field of education that are of particular interest and importance to laymen and, second, the development of materials either in the form of magazine articles, newspaper accounts, and books, or in lectures that are phrased in language clearly understandable to the average lavman.

7. Teachers' conference or institute work. This service refers to the assistance that may be given to professional groups in planning their educational programs and in providing educational speakers who will be particularly helpful to them in a practical way. One of the most commonly used forms of in-service education for teachers is the teachers' meeting, conference, or institute. Too often these meetings have dealt in generalities or have restricted their usefulness to inspirational addresses by "high-powered" platform artists. Seldom have teachers' meetings, conferences, and institutes been organized around one or two central themes which are of vital importance for the particular group at the time. These meetings are important and can be made very useful. They should be incorporated

as a regular unit of an integrated program of in-service education, planned and executed by the local school authorities with full recognition of the particular needs of the teachers that constitute the group.

The School of Education should be able to help local school groups by setting up standards for teachers' meetings, by making suggestion for themes around which the topics of discussion may be centered, and by providing suitable speakers who will be able to give the necessary and practical help that teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents all seek.

8. Supervisory-instructional service. In connection with this service one full day each week is spent in class visitation and conferences with individual teachers in the local school system by a member of the staff of the School of Education. This is followed by group conferences at the close of the day for the discussion of questions arising from the actual classroom problems of the teacher. This is a combination of highly specialized supervision and of traditional instructional work with groups. Hence the name supervisory-instructional service. The advantages of this plan are very real. In the first place it bridges the gap that too often exists between theory and practice. The instructor helps the classroom teacher do the thing talked about in the traditional course in education and is often able to show the teacher by example as well as by precept how to improve her work. In the second place, it is of tremendous practical value because the local problems of a school or school system constitute the basis of study and discussion. The immediate classroom problems of the local teachers receive first-hand consideration. In the third place, it provides highly specialized supervisory service which may not be available in the local school staff. there is specialized local supervision, it is quite likely to be restricted to certain fields. In this case the local supervisory staff will welcome specialized supplementary service from the outside. In the fourth place, it emphasizes improvement of classroom work rather than the accumulation of credits and degrees. Lastly, it is available at a

cost that any school system can afford.

These eight types of special service provided by the Institute of Education constitute the present program. interesting and highly significant that every one of these eight types of service has had its inception in the needs of local schools as expressed by teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents in charge of the work. They are not the fabrication of some imaginative mind in the School of Education that is charged with the responsibility of developing a comprehensive program of services in order to attract attention to the School of Education. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon the desirability of having practical schoolmen and women in the field bring their problems and needs to the staff members of the School of Education. The School of Education can perform its best services only in assisting local school systems in the solution of their problems. This calls for an awareness of local school problems that is only possible when local school staff members understand that the School of Education is not merely making a friendly gesture, but that it is earnestly seeking every available means to cooperate with local school systems in the improvement of their educational programs. Any suggestions, therefore, will be cordially welcomed and sympathetic efforts will be made to develop such plans as will give the greatest amount of practical help to our associates at any time, anywhere, and to the extent that the facilities of the School of Education permit.

In summary, it might be said that the program of the Institute of Education is always modifiable and will be changed to keep pace with the changing conditions and needs that face schools and colleges throughout the country.

VIEWPOINTS RELATED TO SUPERVISORY-INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICE

A PUBLIC-SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT-PAUL D. SCHREIBER1

I think I may safely begin my paper with the statement that intelligent, creative, and efficient supervision is a necessary adjunct to educational administration. The fundamental purpose of supervision is to provide for a scientific attack upon the problems of teaching by those who are at work in the classroom.

The need for this type of professional guidance is readily apparent among experienced and inexperienced teachers alike, but for different reasons.

The large school systems, recognizing the value of supervision, have a highly efficient personnel to assume this important function.

It is a more difficult problem for the small school. The small administrative units cannot afford a supervisory staff, and the practice of promoting teachers from the ranks to serve as department heads with supervisory responsibilities has frequently resulted in friction among the other members of the staff as well as in questions of authority. On more than one occasion in my experience it has been my duty to define the exact status of the department head in his relation to the teachers and the principal, with evident ill success.

It seems to me that the responsibility for supervision in the small school system should rest with the principal. His position as an administrative officer should make it possible to overcome the usual difficulties that stand in the way of teacher coöperation. At the same time I am fully aware that unless definite provision is made, the principal is likely to be burdened with administrative details that will confine him much of the time to his office. This difficulty, fortunately, can be corrected by delegating minor

^{&#}x27;Address before a conference of Long Island schoolmen at Freeport, L. I., January 12, 1932.

clerical details to other employees and thereby making it possible for the principal to give more time to supervision. This problem was solved in my own school when I obtained the approval of the board to employ a clerk for each principal after I had explained that for a sum of money equal to the modest salary of one supervisor I could engage four clerks who in turn would make it possible for four principals to devote the major part of their time to instructional supervision.

This plan has been in effect two years and has given convincing evidence of its superiority over the department-head type of supervision. Some of the results have been shown in a greater interest on the part of the principals in their work and in a discovery of conditions in the class-room which were unknown before—some of which were encouraging and others rather disturbing. There was another outcome that was helpful: the principals learned a great deal about their own schools and frankly admitted it.

Nor did they stop here. It became apparent that our curriculum as well as our educational practice had become obsolete and in need of revision if our schools were to keep abreast with the educational trend. A frank and careful inventory of the teaching personnel gave little promise of leadership and ability from that source, although fully fifty per cent of our teachers had devoted some of their leisure time during the past five years to advanced study. This statement is not one of criticism of the value of extension study. A careful evaluation of university extension study discloses many benefits, most of which are personal, resulting in a broadening intellectual outlook or improved technique.

At best the benefit of specialized study on the part of the teacher is practically confined to her own classes. Her classes in reading may give evidence of her special study in that subject but it is hardly likely that the effect will be noticeable throughout the school. And so it became apparent that if the school were to benefit from the fruits of educational research all of the teachers in that school must concentrate their efforts upon one major problem at the same time, under the direction of a capable supervisor possessing special fitness for the task. If the major problem selected were reading in the elementary school, then all elementary teachers would unite in a scientific attack upon the difficulties encountered in teaching elementary reading in the school. The result, if successful, would benefit the school system.

The plan was laid before the director of the Institute of Education of New York University. After going over the matter carefully he gave it his enthusiastic approval. The problem selected for study was elementary reading. The plan worked out called for the selection of a member of the University staff whose ability, scholarship, and experience in this particular field best fitted her for the undertaking. The organization of the group followed along the lines of the usual university extension course but differed in these respects: cost was to be borne by the school; no credits would be granted unless the individual teacher made application and paid the customary fee; one day a week would be given by the instructor to observation and conferences with teachers, followed by group discussion at the end of the day. The advantages of this plan were immediately obvious—the instructor could acquaint herself with all of the factors and difficulties as they existed in that particular school and in that particular classroom and at the same time, as a supervisory agent, give each teacher such advice, aid, or demonstration as she especially needed.

The results were readily apparent. There was an awakening of interest among the elementary teachers that carried with it those teachers who ordinarily would not undertake such a project. New objectives were set up and new devices and approaches were employed. Much of the reserve and embarrassment between supervisor and teacher was overcome by the charm and personality of the supervisor and the substitution of afternoon tea on an average of once a month in place of the group discussion.

Last fall three studies were undertaken. The elementary school worked on the problem of "Projects and Their Correlation"; the junior high school on "Directed Study"; and the senior high school on "Adapting the High-School Curriculum to the Needs and Abilities of the Individual Pupil."

I do not wish to convey the impression that the experiment is an unqualified success. Difficulties have to be overcome and mistakes corrected. Some of them important enough to warrant mention are the following:

Teachers and principals must have clearly in mind the problem that is to be studied.

There must be a general realization on the part of the

faculty of need for such study.

The project must have the unwavering support of the principals and superintendent. The former should attend group meetings and take an active part in the discussion, and the latter must keep in close touch with the work. The attitude, example, and support of the administrative officials are essential to the success of the project.

Care must be taken, also, to make the teachers feel that professional improvement rather than external compulsion is

the prime motive.

On the other hand, the instructor or supervisory agent must be chosen for his ability, personality, sincerity, and special fitness for the task. He must clearly understand his commission and be in full sympathy with it. Once the course has been laid be must stick to it. He is engaged for a specific purpose.

He must be patient and tactful.

He can ill afford to belittle the program of education in the school.

He must be resourceful and at the same time practical so that he can give demonstration of his ideas.

He must realize that teachers vary in ability and enthusiasm just as individuals in other professions do.

In conclusion, I would say that this type of in-service training of teachers has for its goal specific objectives; its benefits are immediate and at the same time far-reaching. It makes it possible for any school to obtain supervisory services of a high order at a moderate cost. It provides definite contact between the school of theory in education and the school of practice, with untold advantages to both.

A PUBLIC-SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT-JOHN W. DODD2

The plan offered by the Institute of Education of New York University, which combines supervisory work with group discussions and individual conferences, is without doubt the most satisfactory type of teacher training in service our school system has had.

The plan itself is very practical. The fact that the instructor visits the regular classroom of the teacher makes it possible for the teacher to receive help on her immediate problems. This, I think, is one of the best features of supervisory instructional service. The material which forms the basis of discussion in the general meetings is the result of actual classroom observations.

Focusing the attention of all grades on the study of one subject, such as arithmetic, for a period of a year has a very good effect. The best literature in the field and the best technique of classroom instruction are brought to the attention of the group by an expert and studied.

In Freeport, it seems to me that the fact that this course started with an enrollment of thirty teachers and in a very little while increased in enrollment to forty-nine is evidence of an unusual interest in this type of work since enrollment is absolutely voluntary.

Enthusiasm, Interest, and Understanding

A number of years ago I heard a prominent educator declare that one of the greatest things in education is enthusiasm; some time later another equally prominent person made the statement that one of the greatest things in education is interest, and recently I came across the remark that it is understanding. Greater enthusiasm, keener interest, and better understanding in arithmetic are the results of supervisory instructional service. A great deal of the enthusiasm is due to the personality of the instructor. The keen interest I attribute to the very practical work being done in the course. Better understanding

^{&#}x27;Address before a conference of Long Island schoolmen at Freeport, L. I., January 12, 1932.

naturally comes from focusing attention on the study of a

definite problem.

To schoolmen I recommend this service which the Institute of Education of New York University is prepared to give. I am sure that this type of work is something which will help any school. We in Freeport are delighted with the results of the course.

I think the Institute of Education of New York University is to be congratulated for initiating this type of in-service training on Long Island.

A HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL-WILLIAM F. MERRILL

In our school we have had one-half year of supervisory instructional service with several desirable results. The instructor made no attempt to interfere with organization or procedure. However, the fact that he was a stranger to our system made it easier for him to detect both good and bad features. By careful planning of individual conferences and group discussions our interest was aroused and attention drawn to problems which might otherwise have received only casual attention.

Usually each teacher deals largely with his own field of work and its peculiar problems. An outsider can consider the situation as a whole and can pass over small details which ordinarily absorb our attention. He can direct the thought of the faculty to problems of instruction, organization, and administration which affect the school as a whole and the welfare of the individual pupil in particular.

To conduct such a course the instructor needs the vision to see clearly, the knowledge of educational procedure that comes from much study and broad experience, the ability to express ideas convincingly, and the personality to command attention and interest.

We have made few changes in our procedure as a result of this course. We have benefited by all centering attention in the same direction and by all considering problems of common interest in relation to the welfare of our pupils. Perhaps our chief discussions were those emphasizing the value to pupils of increased participation, responsibility, and interest, and ways in which these might be realized. It is, therefore, understandable that we ourselves have developed a renewed interest in the pupil as an individual, a greater feeling of responsibility for whatever will be best for him, and an increased willingness to participate in various phases of school activity in addition to our special field of classroom instruction while at the same time maintaining the work of the classroom on a level of undiminished quality.

A HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHER-T. DIMMICK

The tremendous enrollment of teachers in the professional courses offered by colleges and universities gives convincing evidence of the fact that the training of teachers in service is generally recognized as an important part of professional growth. While the effects of this widespread continued education have been reflected to a considerable degree in improved teaching, the benefits in teacher improvement have not always been commensurate with the number of courses taken. The extent to which any one school benefits by the professional courses taken by its teachers depends very largely upon an administrative program designed to put to use what the teachers learn. The failure of teachers to use their professional training to the fullest extent is due largely to their becoming submerged in the routine details of an accustomed procedure and because it is so easy to continue their familiar practices under a full teaching load.

The most recent development in teacher training—that of having university courses designed to meet the needs of a particular school given within that school—is an important step forward. Such supervisory instructional service is logically correct in theory and practice. The degree to which it succeeds in practice, however, will depend upon several important factors.

A favorable attitude towards the course of study must be developed in the minds of the teachers. Without such an attitude, a program of improvement, although scientifically planned and intelligently presented, will progress

but slowly.

Upon the personality of the instructor will depend much of the success of his course. He must gain the confidence of the teachers, particularly if he is going to work with them in putting his ideas in operation. In such close coöperation between instructor and teacher, the personality of the one giving the course matters much more than it does in the university classroom. School administrators would do well to consider this point carefully; it is very important.

After a course in improvement of instruction has been given, it is necessary that some provision be made for following it through; otherwise the usual professional courses given in universities would be nearly as effective.

If teacher preparation, instructor personality, and the follow-up are kept in mind in bringing a university course into a school, such supervisory instructional service should be a most effective method of teacher training.

AN ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL—FLORENCE M. ALLEN³

To a teacher in service, a course wherein she may obtain ideas and helps which will benefit her in her everyday classroom work is very valuable. I believe such is the case where supervisory-instructional courses have been offered.

This year we have taken advantage of a course in arithmetic. The instructor spends a definite amount of time in our building and sees the teachers at their everyday work. At the end of the class there is a conference between teacher and instructor with the principal "sitting in." During this period, the principal has the advantage of being able to compare her suggestions with those offered by the instructor. This is a definite check on the principal's judgment.

The instructor, who should be a skilled demonstrator,

^{*}Address before a conference of Long Island schoolmen at Freeport, L. I., January 12, 1932,

is always willing to teach a regular class lesson. This is of great assistance to both principal and teacher in that the best way to present material is brought to her observation. Very often the work is done by the instructor in the same manner as would be done by the teacher and this, too, gives a sense of satisfaction to both principal and teacher. The best ways to present material are discussed freely by teachers, principal, and instructor and in this way problems are cleared up in a most satisfactory way. When cases have come up where disagreement has arisen as to the best methods of procedure, the problems have been presented to the discussion group and there have been cleared up to the satisfaction of those concerned.

The question of the most suitable course of study for our particular system has been uppermost in our minds this year. From this course, we hope to make an arithmetic curriculum which will be fitted to our own use. We have made a particular study of textbooks and will make the same study of various courses of study which will be submitted to us by the instructor. We feel that by working together under competent guidance and leadership, a most useful as well as interesting course of study will be developed.

AN ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHER-LYRA B. BOYD

The course dealing with arithmetic in the elementary schools, which is being conducted in Freeport, Long Island, by an instructor from the Institute of Education of New York University, is characterized by the integration of instruction and supervision. From my viewpoint, that of the classroom teacher, its major function is the "tying-up" of theories and principles with actual working practices.

On the days when the instructor is to visit our classrooms, the teachers do not remark, "I must teach a special lesson in arithmetic today." Instead, you are apt to hear them say, "Today I am presenting some work in arithmetic which usually gives my children trouble. We can depend on some real help from the instructor." As the work in the classroom proceeds in a perfectly natural fashion, the instructor notes any problems that may arise. In an unobtrusive way she enters into the class activity at times. Then, upon leaving, she imparts to the teacher whatever personal corrections or approbations she deems the lesson deserves. She might direct us to accepted sources of help, but she goes still further.

At the close of the day the instructor meets with us in a group discussion. All phases of the general problems are then analyzed and corrective measures presented. We find that among our own teachers we have widely varied notions of teaching arithmetical processes. These differences might seem trivial to an onlooker, yet, as groups of little children are promoted from grade to grade, the diversified treatment of these features might confuse their number knowledge to a dangerous degree. With the endorsement of the instructor, a definite method of procedure is adopted.

Furthermore, the instructor makes notes of the effective methods and devices used in the various classrooms and, by her approval and encouragement, we are inspired to increased effort and improved teaching technique.

Through working out the unitary abilities, or the steps of difficulty, in the fundamentals of number work, we have become "sequence conscious" and are stimulated to a close discrimination of all the number work we present, as well as to a self-analysis of our individual classroom practices and standards. In this way our philosophy is carried directly back into our classrooms and put into operation.

As the instructor raises our arithmetical level week by week by her commendation of the good, her remedial suggestions for the improvement of the poor, and the substitution of newer and more efficient methods for the older and more obsolete devices, I am more and more convinced that this is the ideal type of extension course for practical professional growth.

AN INSTRUCTOR—JOSEPHINE H. PIEPER4

When I was asked to talk about supervisory instruction from the point of view of the instructor, I tried to think how I could characterize briefly the supervisory instructional program. It seemed to me that the one word which most adequately described the instructors' reaction to this new procedure was the word "satisfying." With apologies to the writers of advertisements for Chesterfield cigarettes, I should like to adopt their slogan, revise it slightly, and apply it to this subject—"It satisfies."

In attempting to analyze this satisfaction I hit upon an analogy which may perhaps clarify the psychological elements of the instructor's reaction. When I was a small child I was not given particularly to an interest in household tasks, but this apathy was aggravated into an alarming aversion to the job of dusting; that is, to dusting in general. There was one part of the dusting, however, in which I took a great delight; namely, the dusting of the mahogany furniture, the big piano in particular. To dust anything else made me feel ill, which I attributed to the stooping, but the legs of the piano, which were just as near the floor as were the rockers of the golden oak chairs, were a joy and a delight. I took great pleasure in examining the beautiful shiny surface of the mahogany after the dust cloth had removed the film of dirt and in contrasting the dusted portion with the undusted. I used to do the work in little patches in order to make the contrast more vivid. I believe that the basis of this satisfaction can be found in the opportunity the situation afforded for the laborer to see clearly the results of her labor.

It is upon this same basis that the satisfaction arising in the work of supervisory instruction rests. One is able to see the fruits of his instruction expressed in something tangible and worth while. The usual course given in a teachers college or university affords no such direct

⁴Address before a conference of Long Island schoolmen at Freeport, L. I., January 12,

means of evaluating its effectiveness. For this purpose we are forced to rely upon the reports submitted and upon the reactions, conscious and overt, of the individuals in the group to which we are imparting the pearls of great price. The reports, we know full well, may be the fruit of the labors of some instructor in the dim and distant past. the evidence of which has been hoarded in fraternity archives for, lo, these many years. And we learn through sad experience that the reactions of the group in the classroom are not to be trusted as valid indices of the power which we are exerting on the youth who sit at our feet. We come to mistrust that expression of eager and absorbed interest which students learn to assume when they enter a classroom and abandon as easily at the stroke of a bell. recall a case in point which left my illusions shattered and my faith in my own prowess verging on the brink of destruction. A student in a class which I was teaching in a State normal school had throughout the entire course been a source of considerable annovance to me. She was well behaved but disinterested. She never interrupted me in any way except by her utter lack of response. She sat in the front row and nothing I said made any impression on her. Her expression seemed to say, "I have to sit here but I don't have to like it." It got to be almost a phobia with me to have to look into that blank, expressionless face, and go right on talking required a superhuman effort. One morning as I began my discussion I noticed a brightening in her eye, a quickening of interest, an intentness and alertness which thrilled me immeasurably. on by this new interest, and all the time wondering what I said that might have aroused it, I arose to great heights in my zeal to keep the spark aglow. Her eyes never left my face during the entire hour and great was my joy, after the class was over to see her waiting in the line of students which always collects around an instructor's desk when the class period is finished. I could scarcely answer the questions of the others for wondering what she would say when she reached me. After the others had all been satisfied I turned to her and smiled my welcome. But the smile died on my face when she said, "Where did you get your hair done? I would give anything if I could get a wave like that." Thus are we often mislead in our attempts to judge ourselves by the yardstick of our interpretation of the reactions of other individuals.

The coördination of supervision with instruction, however, gives to the instructor the rare privilege of stepping into a classroom, some time after a discussion with a group of teachers, to see those same teachers applying the suggestions which have grown out of the discussion with the group, to see the little children growing in skill and in power. It is a great pleasure to hear the teacher say, "The children like this so much," and if by chance the teacher says, "The children don't like to do it this way"—well—that is not pleasant, but it is of immeasurable value and should become a source of satisfaction and pleasure with other teachers and other children.

The plan of the particular course which I am conducting in Freeport is this: I spend one day each week visiting classes in the schools, watching the children at work, and observing the teachers' techniques. From the standpoint of administration it will be of interest to note that I visit two schools one week, one in the morning and one in the afternoon, and the other two schools the next week. The third week the first two schools are visited, reversing the order of the morning and afternoon periods. Thus each school has been visited every second week. We plan to vary this procedure slightly, however, during the second semester. Due to the fact that there are more teachers in certain buildings than in others, we plan to make the number of visits in the ratio of 3:2:2:1, which approximates the relation between numbers of teachers in the four buildings. We will continue doing two buildings each week but the order will be varied. We feel that in this way we can more adequately meet the needs of each of the fortynine teachers who are cooperating in this work.

After each observation there is some time allotted for

personal conferences of teacher, principal, and instructor. May I interject here a little statement about the importance of the principal in the success of a supervisory instructional program. If the work which we are carrying on here has met with any measure of success it is due to the splendid cooperation of the superintendent and the principals. And, may I say further, if any of you are contemplating the initiation of such a program in your own school system, you should first assure yourselves of the fact that the teachers and the principals are eager and willing to cooperate, for without such cooperation the whole program would be an empty gesture. But, back to the subject of personal conferences. These conferences are held as soon as possible after the observation, usually immediately following the lesson or at the mid-morning recess, or at the close of the morning or afternoon session.

I feel that this individual conference is the pivotal feature of the entire plan. It is by means of personal contact with each of the teachers that the less obvious but more fundamental needs of individuals are discovered. Observation without discussion is unfair to the individual observed. The discussion gives him the privilege of interpreting his procedure in the light of his plans and purposes. It is surprising how often a bit of technique observed in the classroom which seems to the observer utterly valueless or perhaps even vicious takes on a real value when considered with the teacher from the standpoint of her particular problem. It is through the personal conference that the instructor is enabled to interpret for the individual the recommendations which the instructor suggests to the group. It is important for the instructor to realize that there are comparatively few blanket rules which he can lay down for application to any and every classroom situation and it is important for the instructor to make the teachers conscious that he is aware of this by helping them to interpret and to adapt the generalizations to their particular situations.

The individual conference plan is sometimes varied

slightly by having a small group conference of the teachers of the same grade in the same school. This means a group of two or three, which is small enough to have most of the advantages of the individual conference, as well as the benefit of group thought on their common problems.

On occasion, instead of going into the classroom to observe the teacher at work, it has proved of some value for the instructor to take over the class for the purpose of demonstrating some phase of teaching technique. Personally, I hold no brief for demonstration as a panacea for all teaching ills nor do I set myself as a model upon which all teachers may do well to pattern themselves, so I have confined this phase of the work to actual requests from individuals to see this or that kind of work being done. These demonstration lessons have been conducted in three ways: (1) demonstration given for one teacher, using her class; (2) demonstration given for two teachers, combining the classes of both teachers; (3) demonstration given for from two to six teachers, using the class of one of them. The latter plan has several advantages some of which are:

- 1. It is economical to reach several people with the same time and energy which would have to be spent in doing the job for only one person.
- 2. It is much easier for the instructor to handle a group of the ordinary size than to try to conduct a lesson with eighty wiggling boys and girls occupying some forty ordinary seats.
- 3. The conference which should follow demonstration as well as observation is more profitable when several individuals can contribute to it.

Despite its advantages, the third plan of conducting demonstration work cannot always be followed due to the difficulties which arise in administering it.

At the end of the school day which has been spent in observation or demonstration, followed by individual or small group conferences, the teachers come together for a general conference. This conference is conducted in two groups, one hour being given to the teachers in grades

one, two, and three and the second hour being given to the teachers in grades four, five, and six. The first part of each conference hour is devoted to a consideration of problems which have arisen during classroom observation which are general in nature and so of interest to the entire group. Through this discussion the teachers are able to settle many of their common problems. The rest of the time is spent in conducting a course in the teaching of arithmetic, such as I conduct with students in the University itself. Since the teachers are given the privilege of doing this work for university credit, if they so desire, it is essential that the work carried on in the conference period be conducted in a way which will meet the standards set up by the University. Assignments for outside work are made and carried out by the teachers and surprisingly enough it has been my experience that they are more faithful in doing the outside work and more regular in bringing in required reports than are the University students whose sole business is to carry out the requirements of the various courses for which they are registered.

All of the steps in the plan of the course—observation, individual conference, demonstration, and group conferences-are given direction by the central theme of diagnostic and remedial work. It is important that there be one coördinating factor lest the various units of the procedure become isolated, resulting in much dissipation of the energy expended by the group. The teachers have, through the group conference, worked out a plan of diagnosing the skills involved in the fundamental processes of arithmetic. For this purpose the teachers have built tests covering each of the processes step by step. While this may seem to be a wasteful procedure in view of the many good tests available commercially, it is the opinion of the instructor that a testing program is as adequate as is the teacher's understanding of the program which she is attempting to administer. Having built her own tests she knows what they are attempting to measure and, therefore, is in a position to judge the results. The teachers

have developed remedial materials, based upon the diagnostic tests, to enable the children to attain the skills tested.

The diagnostic and remedial program, although it is the coördinating factor of the work, is not the sole objective but finds ramifications in techniques and activities designed to enlarge the scope of the arithmetic program.

An attempt has been made to build the course around the desires and needs of the principals and teachers. accordance with this aim much of the second semester's group conference work will be devoted to a consideration of the course of study in arithmetic for Freeport, Long This is of paramount importance to both principals and teachers as revealed by their frank expression of opinion. It is being postponed until the end of the year's work because the teachers will be better able to consider the problems of curriculum construction in the field of arithmetic after having made an intensive study of the subject itself. We plan to conduct this part of the work by making careful analyses of the best courses of study published within the last five years and then, by comparison of data, determining what outline of work would be best adapted to this particular situation.

The outcomes of such a supervisory instructional course should be increased enthusiasm for the subject on the part of the teachers and improved work in the subject on the part of the students. The duration of this increased enthusiasm and effort should not be that of the time during which the course is being conducted. The maintenance, during the years to follow, of the growth achieved during this year's concentrated effort is of paramount importance. Under the proper guidance the course should function better after it is completed than while it is in progress, due to the fact that during the present year only one point at a time can be considered and the cumulative effect is slowly acquired while the following year the teachers have the benefit of the sum total of their thought and effort of the

previous year to apply to the work throughout the entire year.

As a means of setting up a program for maintenance, the instructor hopes to leave the work in arithmetic for the years to follow under the direction of a committee of teachers. It is her aim to have the chairmanship and personnel of this committee determined at the close of this year's work so that she may be of some assistance in helping them plan their activities and responsibilities. Membership in this committee should be voluntary lest its tasks prove so irksome as to militate against its successful functioning. The personnel of this committee should be representative of each of the six grades and the administrative officers but the committee should not be so large in number as to make the group unwieldy. Some of the activities of such a committee may be outlined as follows: (1) To direct testing at the beginning of the year: (2) to direct diagnostic work during the year; (3) to plan remedial work; (4) to direct final tests; (5) to stimulate and direct projects and to keep records of them; (6) to allocate units of work; (7) to stimulate and direct experimental work; (8) to study environmental aids outside of school; (9) to disseminate regular reports; (10) to prepare for a general group conference; (11) to lead the discussion of reports; (12) to plan an arithmetic progress day (exhibit of work, annual report of activities, published articles, statement of unsolved problems).

A service for the maintenance of the benefits derived from a course in supervisory instruction, which has not yet been made available but which possibly could be developed if the demand seemed to warrant it, may well be suggested here. I feel that the services of the Institute of Education could well be utilized for the purpose of a follow-up program to continue for a period of one to five years after a course in supervisory instruction. This ought not to be a very expensive procedure and yet would be of immeasurable value in supporting and ramifying the work already

accomplished. I suggest tentatively the following plan as a form which a follow-up program might well take:

1. The instructor should have one conference with the arithmetic committee appointed at the end of the course.

2. The instructor should have one or two conferences with teachers new to the system who did not have the benefit of the course. (Suggested dates: October 1 and December 1.)

3. The instructor should have one general conference with the entire group (December 1) to consider problems arising out of new procedures.

4. The instructor should maintain an up-to-date bibliographic service for the teachers which would include the following items: textbooks, reference books, magazine articles, courses of study, tests, drill materials, work books, instructional materials.

Such a follow-up program might be adopted or not by any school system making use of the supervisory instructional service. The program could be adapted to meet the needs of each individual system, making available any one or all of the four items mentioned. Special needs of particular systems could be added to the list suggested. I mention the plan here only because of my enthusiasm for the possibilities of this new venture which is being undertaken by the Institute of Education and because of my realization that it is the sincere desire of the dean of the School of Education and of the director of the Institute of Education to make available to schoolmen the kind of service which will be most helpful.

ADVISORY SERVICE RELATED TO CURRICULUM REVISION

ALONZO F. MYERS

The problem of integrating the efforts and making proper utilization of the abilities of highly specialized groups in our modern social structure is one which must increasingly be recognized as of prime importance. tendency to specialize is characteristic of workers at all The maid-of-all-work, the Jack-of-all-trades, the family physician who treated colds, removed tonsils, and extracted teeth on occasion all are disappearing from the American scene. Probably we are better served by specialists; certainly many of the activities of modern life demand specialization for their successful performance. Nevertheless, this tendency towards specialization interposes its own serious problems. Frequently it is difficult to discover the specialist who is competent to handle a given problem. Not infrequently the problem is itself so complicated as to require the attention of several specialists, placing the unfortunate possessor of the problem in the position of needing to retain an entire staff of specialists or of failing to receive needed assistance.

There is some evidence to show that society is setting up correctives to the tendency towards overspecialization. The most familiar example in the business world is the corner drugstore which now carries drugs only as a relatively unimportant side line, but which will supply almost anything else you may desire from a quick lunch to hardware. Similar tendencies may be discovered in many of our large industrial organizations, such as the manufacture of electric refrigerators and radios by the General Motors Corporation. In the field of medicine the clinic and the hospital are serving as agencies for integrating the highly specialized services of members of the medical profession. At Yale University the Institute of Human Relations seeks

to orient prospective members of several professions, such as law, medicine, and psychiatry, in the contributions of fields other than their own to the solution of the complex problems of men.

Education, like the other professions, has tended towards specialization in modern times. The problems of integrating the efforts of specialists in the different aspects and levels of education are claiming an ever larger share of the time and thought of educators. Specialization in the training of teachers has progressed to a point where primary teachers know little of the methods, procedures, and problems of their associates who teach at the level of the intermediate grades. The intermediate-grade teachers are quite unfamiliar with the aims and objectives of the junior high school. Special-subject teachers and supervisors have long been charged with failure to harmonize their fields with the rest of the work of the school and with the general aims of education.

Those who train teachers are charged with failure to acquaint themselves with the needs of the schools in which their graduates are to teach. Teacher-training people frequently feel that public-school administrators and supervisors fail to make proper utilization of the training and abilities of their young graduates.

In education, as in other fields, the most promising element in the situation is the fact that we are becoming aware of the problem. Integration is becoming a popular word in educational circles. Teacher-training curricula are recognizing the problem through such ways as the provision of courses in introduction to education in which students are given a large initial view of the field of education. In their work in observation and student teaching, students frequently are given experience at levels other than those at which they expect to teach.

There is an increasing tendency for faculty members in teacher-training institutions to secure a variety of contacts with actual public-school conditions. The follow-up programs of the teacher-training institutions probably are as valuable in their effects upon the faculty members who participate as upon the young teachers who are visited. Extension courses and summer-session courses for teachers in service also have the effect of bringing those who work in teacher-training institutions in closer touch with the needs of the field. The number and variety of these contacts can be greatly increased to the mutual profit of the schools and of those who train the teachers.

Curriculum revision in public schools is one important activity which not only provides an opportunity for bringing about a closer integration of the units, levels, and subject-matter fields represented in the schools, but which calls for the greatest possible degree of highly coordinated effort on the part of those specialists who have a contribution to make in this important undertaking. Best practice, and even common practice, has advanced a long way during the past twenty years in this matter of curriculum construction and revision. We have long since abandoned the notion that this is a task to be performed by the administrator, or by the administrative and supervisory group, and handed down, like a book of recipes, to those who have to use it. We have recognized that curriculum construction and revision is a cooperative enterprise and that classroom teachers have an important and vital function in it. This is one aspect of the general tendency towards cooperative supervision, a tendency which is the inevitable result of recent rapid increases in the preparation and tenure of classroom teachers.

Undoubtedly the old wav of curriculum revision was much simpler and easier the the modern way. It is no small task to enlist and direct intelligently the efforts of a group of teachers in a sustained and fruitful attack upon the problems of curriculum revision in a school system. Teachers and supervisors are busy people. Many of them have not been adequately prepared for effective service on curriculum committees. Unfortunately, too, many of them have participated in abortive efforts at curriculum revision

and are not readily interested in new proposals which may have a similar outcome.

During the past decade the curriculum expert has become a familiar figure among the ever increasing group of specialists in American education. These specialists in curriculum construction have rendered real service in bringing to school systems which were able to afford it the benefit of successful experience and outstanding ability in the organization and direction of groups of teachers in the problems of curriculum construction and revision. Unfortunately, the great majority of communities have been unable or unwilling to employ outside assistance in this work.

In many of these same communities which have not considered it possible to employ outside assistance in their curriculum-revision programs, the teachers are spending thousands of dollars annually for extension courses, frequently with liberal subsidies from their boards of education in recognition of their efforts at professional growth. All too frequently these courses are quite unrelated to the problems confronting the teachers who are enrolled in them. It is one of the astounding things about too many of us who are engaged in that delightful occupation of teaching others how to teach that we can go into a community once each week for a term or a year with an extension course for the teachers in that community and never take the trouble to become aware of the problems with which those teachers are struggling. By so doing we fail to capitalize one of the finest opportunities for successful teaching that could possibly be afforded. Unfortunately, too, many of us would not know what to do with a real situation if we were confronted with it.

This situation, however, is in process of gradual correction. An insistent demand is coming from teachers who take extension courses and from public-school administrators that courses for teachers in service be closely related to the work and problems of those taking the courses. The teacher-training institutions are responding to this

demand with alacrity. The difficulty is to secure instructors who are able to render assistance in the solution of

real educational problems.

In the field of curriculum revision the extension divisions of our teacher-training institutions have an admirable opportunity to render much needed assistance to teachers and public-school systems. All teachers may be expected to have a vital interest in the curriculum with which they work. We have quite generally accepted the notion that curriculum revision should be a cooperative enterprise, enlisting the best efforts of teachers as well as supervisory officers. No finer opportunity could possibly be offered to the instructional staff of a teacher-training institution in the field of the in-service education of teachers than that of working with the teachers of a community in the task of improving their curriculum. To do this successfully would require the expenditure of much more time and energy by all concerned than is usually required for the more conventioned type of extension course. The returns, however, would be correspondingly greater.

One difficulty with the organization of this kind of extension service is that few, if any, instructors would be sufficiently prepared in the various subject-matter fields to enable them to render adequate assistance and guidance in a program of curriculum revision. The solution, of course, is for the teacher-training institution to make available to the community not one instructor, but several, to the end that the best talent available in the respective fields may be brought to bear upon the problems of curriculum revision in the community. It will be readily apparent that such a proposal not only involves more work for those who participate, but careful planning between the teacher-training institution and the school officials of the community.

The Institute of Education of New York University, in response to specific requests from several communities, has set up a plan for rendering to public-school systems advisory service related to curriculum revision. The plan makes it possible for the teachers participating in the

curriculum-revision project to secure college credit for their work, although that point is not essential to the plan. If a sufficient number of teachers enroll for credit, as usually may be expected to be the case, their registration fees cover the entire cost of providing the advisory service.

When such a plan is entered into with a given community, the director of the Institute of Education selects a staff from among the faculty of the University to render the advisory service to the community. The staff consists of a general chairman or coördinator, a consultant in elementary education, a consultant in secondary education, and specialists in each subject-matter field which is to be included in the curriculum-revision program. Each member of the staff selected for this work makes regular scheduled visits to the community and conducts conferences or "holds class meetings" with those members of the local group who are concerned with his aspect of the study.

CONFERENCE SERVICE FOR LAYMEN IN EDUCATION

NED H. DEARBORN

Every layman in education has a perfect right to inquire regarding the work done in our public schools and the costs therefor. Public education is distinctly a public service supported by public tax money. Any one in public education, therefore, has an obligation to provide the layman with complete and accurate data regarding the purposes, programs, and plans of public education.

There is grave danger of the overinstitutionalization of public education. By overinstitutionalization we mean that members of the teaching profession are prone to "overestimate" the values of their specialized abilities, to forget that they are under obligations to render an accounting to the public in whose interest public schools were established, and to forget that society is the whole of which public education is only a part. The result is a feeling of resentment at lay criticisms, a tendency to "rationalize" their work among themselves rather than to give the public satisfactory explanations, and an attitude of expectancy towards society for the support of public education willynilly. This is overinstitutionalization and it is a danger to be avoided at all costs.

It is not uncommon for members of a profession that is conducted on a private business basis to practise, sometime quite unconsciously, a type of hocus-pocus that quite bewilders the layman. The psychological use of silences and wise looks, together with a clever use of highly technical terms enables the practitioner to leave his client with a feeling of hopelessness and inferiority. The result is that an unfortunate importance sometimes is attached to the abilities and knowledge of the professional worker. In private practice this air of mystery or superiority sometimes assists the professional practitioner. The profession

of teaching, however, is quite another matter. Here the professional worker in the public schools serves an institution that was originally organized to advance the cause of human welfare. Nothing short of complete candor, honesty, and accuracy will establish that type of public confidence needed to ensure permanent and substantial support for our public schools.

The use of simple, concise, and clear language is imperative in dealing with the public. Relatively few teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, or college professors are able to use language that is easily understandable to laymen. They are too prone to use a technical language that is not always understood even among members of the profession. The result naturally is a lack of confidence on the part of laymen in the ability of professional workers to plan and conduct the work of education in a way that justifies the expenditures rather generously made by the public.

Members of public-school staffs should do everything possible to keep the public informed regarding the work of the schools. Visiting days can be arranged at which time parents and other laymen can see the work of the classrooms and confer with the teachers regarding the work of children. Programs and school exhibits can be arranged for the benefit of laymen. Meetings can be arranged with teachers so that problems in education that are common to both laymen and teachers may be made the subject of interesting and helpful discussion. Personnel officers, such as school-attendance officials, visiting teachers, school nurses, physicians and dentists, deans, counselors and guidance officers can bring to the public a vast sum of information regarding the work of the schools. In this connection much can be gained through the use of school publications, newspaper items, magazine articles, and occasionally through books on education. Nothing, however, can take the place of personal contact that is accompanied with courteous and painstaking explanation.

There are many organizations designed specifically for the purpose of bringing the schools and laymen into close cooperation and understanding. To cite only three of the outstanding organizations of this type one might mention, first, the National Council of Parents' Education, second, the Child Study Association of America, and third, the National Council of Parents' and Mothers' Associa-In local communities one finds parent-teacher associations, various civic organizations, fraternal orders, religious groups, and service clubs. These organizations are always anxious to have one or more programs during the year devoted to a discussion of education. The club leaders, however, are in need of sympathetic advice regarding the nature of their programs as related to education. It is at this point that professional leadership can be of tremendous service. In giving suggestions regarding the nature of programs, in suggesting breaking up general discussion topics into logical small units, and in recommending able speakers, the professional adviser can be of great service to lay groups.

Schools and colleges of education, by reason of their position of leadership, should be ready at all times to render a service to laymen in education that is unsurpassed by any similar group. This can be done by direct contact with lav groups and sometimes by working through the local school officials in providing programs and speakers for lay groups. A concrete example is found in the case of a superintendent of schools who desired a series of lectures on "Child Development" for the parents in his community. He conferred with one of the administrative officers in a near-by school of education stating his needs and requesting that a program be arranged and speakers secured for his city. A specialist on the staff of the school of education was consulted and he analyzed the topic of "Child Development" into six subdivisions and suggested specially qualified speakers to discuss each of the six topics. Through this method of cooperation between the local

school superintendent and the school of education, a distinct service was performed for the laymen of that particular city.

The Institute of Education is constantly studying the relationship of the school to the public. The problems, issues, and topics in education that are or ought to be of interest to laymen and the ways and means of presenting these problems, issues, and topics in effective ways constitute an important field of study. As the Institute through research, observation, and experience masters this field, the School of Education of New York University will increase its usefulness to laymen in education.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC. REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912

Of The Journal of Educational Sociolagy, published monthly except June, July and August at Albany, N. Y., for October, 1931.

State of New York County of Albany 88

Before me, a Notary Public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared A. J. Fowers, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the Business Manager of The Journal of Educational Sociology and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and busi-

That the known bondholders, mortgagees, and other security holders owning or holding I per cent or more of total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities are: None.

are: None.

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Sworn to and subscribed before me this 29th day of April, 1932.

W. S. RYAN.

My commission expires March 30, 1934

LECTURE AND CONSULTATION SERVICE RELATED TO TEACHER GROUPS

ROBERT K. SPEER

The lecture method of instruction has fallen into disrepute in educational circles. Lecturing in campus courses is widely criticized by the philosophers of method who advocate an instructional plan calling for a higher degree of participation on the part of the entire group. It is suspected that the mass of the professional clan pay lip service to the philosophers of method while they continue to lecture.

There is not such a strenuous objection raised to lecturing before teachers, principals, and others who are in the field. Apparently there is an assumption that when an educational expert appears in a community, away from the campus, he may with impunity and without apology lecture his audience. Probably this is well, for while we may accept the implications of the philosophers' theory of method, we must not forget that the lecture method has been used for centuries by the clergy of the world who were not less successful in controlling conduct when they used it most. It is the method of the evangelist who gets at least temporary and oftentimes permanent behavior results. It is the method of the lawyer who pleads before the court, and some believe that the lecture plea is quite as effective as the evidence advanced in getting a certain desired behavior on the part of the jury-audience. the method of the Chautauqua speaker, and most would agree that millions of pleasant hours, and profitable ones too, are spent annually by Americans "listening" to travel accounts, the art of the Navajo Indians, and the problems and issues of contemporary civilization.

At any rate, one of the techniques for improving teachers in service practised widely by administrative and supervisory officers in school systems is occasionally to call into

the school organization those labelled as experts on various aspects of education. And further, these supervisory school officers usually follow the plan either of organizing institutes, in which several lectures are delivered within a period of a few days, or else of spacing the meetings over a longer period of time. This is the situation which the teacher-training institution, pledged to serve those on the firing line, finds.

Elsewhere in this issue will be found accounts of a supervisory-instructional service and of a specialized service related to curriculum revision. The authors of these articles believe these to be a superior type of service and certainly they are superior in terms of the amount of participation on the part of those who do participate at all. However, it is surely the responsibility of the teacher-training institution to serve the field workers as they wish to be served. It is, in addition, the responsibility of the teacher-training institution to improve this service.

CONFERENCES ON TEACHERS' MEETINGS

Schools of education should develop standards for teachers' meetings and should by one means or another make those in the field cognizant of the standards. Assuming a high caliber staff in the schools of education, members of this staff should be able to assist the field workers, who are in strategic positions, on the problem of how to organize a program of teachers' meetings. If those of us in schools of education are worthy of our hire, conferences with those making up the programs ought to do a lot of good.

There is a tendency for teacher-institute programs to deal with heterogeneous subjects, to include largely topics of a very general nature, and to overstress the inspirational type of thing. Through conference with those making up the programs, officers of teacher-training institutions may assist the field officers to avoid too great a variety of subjects, to have a central motif, to plan their lectures around a central theme. We may lead them to see that it is fre-

quently advisable to break large groups up into smaller groups and to break the subjects of the program up into a few units directly related to the interests of the specific In areas where teacher institutes are held we might get them to consider the relative effectiveness of two or three or four meetings spaced throughout the year. We may encourage the program committees to plan for group discussions as well as lectures. We may make them aware of the effectiveness of demonstration meetings followed by discussion. We may acquaint them with the desirability of having exhibits of school materials related, if possible, directly or indirectly with the subject of the meeting. While it is probably justifiable to have one short session given over to general educational problems and treated inspirationally or entertainingly, we may advise as a substitute for this for rural teachers having less frequent opportunity for contact with the arts that one meeting be given over to a musicale. Through conference with those making up the programs, the members of the school of education staffs may diplomatically impart the wisdom that at teachers' meetings superintendents should not waste time taking up many administrative matters that could be handled through mimeographed materials, and that administrative presentations, at the meetings, should deal only with things requiring personal explanation.

ADVISING ON PROGRAM PERSONNEL

Help in planning the teachers' meetings is but a part of the service a school of education may properly render to the field. Schools of education should hold themselves in readiness to advise on the personnel—the lecturers and leaders of discussion themselves. If the faculty of the school of education has been well chosen, the institution called upon for service will have many staff members worthy of recommendation as speakers. If it serves unselfishly it will recommend the best available personnel even though the individuals involved reside elsewhere. Not only should the school of education be unselfish in its advice on lec-

turers, but, if it is worthy, it will be prepared with lists of able speakers outside its walls. Further, these lists will be classified according to specialization and particularized group interest and appeal.

Those in the field may properly command the time of schools of education in planning meetings and in recommending speakers for those meetings. Reputable schools of education will be willing and prepared to render this service. Professedly schools of education house staffs that keep informed on the best field practices everywhere. These staffs travel about. They meet superintendents here and there. They come in contact with experts in education in widely scattered areas. They may properly be expected to be more effective in planning teachers' meetings and in personnel selection than is the superintendent who has not been around as much and who is occupied with the details of administration and whose time is consumed with inside classroom supervision.

CONSULTATION SERVICE ON SPECIFIC SCHOOL PROBLEMS

The matter of conference service on specific school problems will be given less space here. It should not be assumed, however, that it is to be considered less emphatically an important service which a school of education may render to the field officers. A school of education should be prepared and enthusiastic in its willingness to consult with public- and private-school officers on specific problems of the school system.

Lightning-like changes are occurring in some phases of educational practice. Vocational education comes into being one year, a variety of shops are introduced into school-building plans for the few years following, and then, before the introduction is anywhere nearly complete, some one or group of individuals gives birth to the idea of a general shop. The superintendent and his staff may properly turn to the members of the vocational-education department of a school of education for advice. Members of schools of education sow the seed that grows into a

desire, on the part of a school system, to introduce a program of guidance. The professors who sowed the seed should be available to cultivate it. They should be available to field workers in working out the plans for introduction and for consultation on the problems and issues involved. If, in schools of education, we teach a philosophy of discipline or control at variance with the school practice of the time, we should be available for service to school officers in making the transfer from that which is to that which we have proposed.

Schools of education purport to prepare educational field workers for a variety of school positions. If they are qualified to prepare them for several types of positions, they should be qualified to help them with the problems that arise in these positions. Theoretically, least, for each and every problem that arises on the firing line, the school of education should have a staff member sufficiently expert to give valuable assistance in the solving of that field problem. The ideal school of education will not only have the expert on its staff, but it will have a policy of service which makes that expert readily available to the field workers. If the educational workers in the field will come to the school of education, and if the school of education will go to the field workers, we will ultimately work out a program that is practical and sensible. Herein lies a method of integration between theory and practice. Finally, and it almost sounds contradictory, herein lies a method by which deans of instruction in schools of education may hope to educate their own staffs so that they may be better qualified effectively to train the young and inexperienced in their folds.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

A. F. MAYHEW

Many studies have been made of the ways in which superintendents have attempted to improve the work of teachers. The following list indicates the variety of activities promoted by school systems throughout the country in an effort to improve the work of teachers in service. These activities are listed without regard to value or popularity. Some have resulted in great efficiency while others are of doubtful value. The number and variety of activities, however, indicate the effort that is being made to improve the work of teachers in service and to raise teaching to a level of real professional worth.

- 1. Circular letters
- 2. Personal conferences
- 3. Reading educational literature
- 4. Visitation by superior officers
- 5. Regular general teachers' meetings
- 6. Group conferences on specific problems
- 7. Visiting other teachers
- 8. Special subject supervision
- 9. Additional salary for meritorious service
- 10. Pension plans
- 11. Tenure
- 12. Extension courses
- 13. Professional reading in current periodicals
- 14. Educational institutes
- 15. Encouraging teachers to experiment
- 16. Providing professional books and magazines
- 17. Enrolling teachers in professional organizations
- 18. Recommending professional courses
- 19. Rating teachers
- 20. Correspondence courses
- 21. Summer-school courses
- 22. Higher salaries
- 23. Lightening teacher load
- 24. Provision of free time for travel
- 25. Sabbatical year
- 26. Coöperative studies by teachers and supervisors
- 27. Adequate equipment
- 28. Coöperation by community

- 29. Follow-up work by training schools
- 30. Demonstration schools
- 31. Experimental schools

The following lists of activities designed to improve the work of teachers in service is based on the reports of several hundred school systems throughout the country. The first list gives in rank order the ten most effective methods used, based on the judgment of superintendents of small school systems. The second list records the judgment of superintendents in the larger school systems of the country.

METHODS USED IN TEACHER IMPROVEMENT IN SMALLER SCHOOL SYSTEMS—ARRANGED IN RANK ORDER

| | | Per Cent of the | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|-----------------|----|----|----|----|-----|---|----|-----|---|------|
| | | S | ys | te | en | as | ;] | R | eŗ | 00 | r | ting |
| 1. | Personal conference | | | | | | | | | | | .59 |
| 2. | Reading educational literature | | | | | | | | | | | .56 |
| 3. | Visitation by superior officer | | | ٠ | | | | | | | | .53 |
| 4. | Regular general teachers' meetings | | | | | | | | | 0 1 | | .53 |
| | Group conferences on specific problems | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. | Visiting other teachers | | | | | | | | | | | .21 |
| 7. | Demonstration teaching by other teachers | | | | | | | | | | | . 14 |
| | Supervising bulletins | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9. | Checking teaching methods | 0 0 | | | | | | | | | | .14 |
| 10. | Assignment to special educational projects | | | | | | | | | | | .14 |

METHODS USED FOR IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE IN LARGE SCHOOL SYSTEMS—ARRANGED IN RANK ORDER

| | Per Cent of the Systems Reporting |
|-----|---|
| 1. | Pension or retirement plan90 |
| 2. | Visitation by superior officer |
| 3. | Personal conference |
| 4. | Group conferences on specific problems |
| 5. | Supervision by general or special supervisors |
| 6. | Additional salary for merit56 |
| 7. | Enrollment in extension or correspondence courses46 |
| 8. | Regular general teachers' meetings27 |
| 9. | Reading professional literature27 |
| 10. | Summer-school attendance24 |

The following list of books has been read in the preparation of the foregoing discussion. These references may be useful to the student of in-service education whether

in a teachers college, normal school, or university school of education.

- Public Education in the United States, by E. P. Cubberley. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919.
- Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching, by W. H. Burton. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1922.
- Public School Administration, by E. P. Cubberley. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1916.
- A Work Book for Principals and Supervisors, by R. H. Lane. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930.
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- Activity Analysis of the Work of the General Supervisor, by F. L. Whitney.
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- Outline of Systematic Supervision, by John W. Withers. New York: New York University Press, 1930.
- Visiting the Teacher at Work, by C. J. Anderson, A. S. Barr, and M. G. Bush. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1925.
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- How to Supervise, by George C. Kyte. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1930.
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- The Improvement of the City Elementary School Teacher in Service.

 Teachers College Contributions to Education No. 128, by Charles
 Russell. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922.
- The Growth of Teachers in Service, by F. L. Whitney. New York: The Century Company, 1927.
- The Improvement of City Elementary Teachers in Service, by C. F. Russell. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922.

A SELECTED AND ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRA-PHY OF PERIODICAL LITERATURE ON IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

NOBLE F. GREENHILL

In an effort to select articles representative of current practice and thought with reference to the in-service education of teachers, an examination of current periodical literature from March 1, 1931, to December 1, 1931, was undertaken. In this study use was made of the Educational Index and the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature. Copies of magazines not listed in either of these publications were available for examination. In this way the issues of approximately seven hundred fifty magazines appearing over a period of nine months were searched for articles dealing with this subject or some phase of it. A reëxamination of these articles eliminated all of them except twenty. Although there is some duplication in them, it is believed they are representative of the original group as a whole.

- Bennett, A. L., "Clinics for Teachers." Virginia Journal of Education, Vol. 24, March 1931, pp. 290-291.
 - Describes a plan in the in Albemarle County which makes it possible for white elementary teachers to observe regular class-room instruction. Four schools were selected and each taught on a separate Saturday. The superintendent of education sends a written notice when a teacher is required to visit a school but any teacher may visit any school on any Saturday it is open.
- 2. Butsch, R. L. C., "The Preparation of Teachers." Review of Educational Research, 1, 2, April 1931, pp. 76-82.

The latter part of this article is devoted to a summarization of the devices for in-service training of teachers.

 Dearborn, Ned H., "The In-Service Education of Teachers." The Journal of the National Education Association, 20, 6, June 1931, pp. 193-194.

The following six functions of a program of teacher education are presented and discussed: (1) to provide reasonable mastery of subject matter; (2) to assist teachers to formulate a definite

philosophy of education; (3) to provide understanding of child nature; (4) to develop powers of evaluation; (5) to provide ethical training; and (6) to provide education for life outside the classroom. A plea for the integration of pre-service and in-service education of teachers which will take into account these fundamental functions in a total program of teacher education.

 Dearborn, Ned H., "The Relation between General Education and Technical Training in the Professional Education of Teachers." National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1931, pp. 257-258 (abstract).

In-service education of teachers is discussed from the point of view of a university school of education. Extension courses, summer-school study, general surveys, special investigations, services of faculty member as a special adviser, coöperative research, and specialized supervision are the items included.

 Dewolf, George E., "What We are Doing Already to Promote Growth of Teachers Inservice." National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1931, p. 210 (abstract).

Professional and cultural reading, membership in teachers' organizations, teachers' meetings, and personal conferences have been found useful in Creston, Iowa.

 Eberhart, R., "Evaluating Your Own Teaching." The Journal of the National Education Association, 20, 8, August 1931, p. 304.
 A series of questions is grouped around six divisions of the topic,

A series of questions is grouped around six divisions of the topic, one of which is professional growth.

Evenden, E. S., "Issues in Teacher-Training Programs." Educational Administration and Supervision, 17, 7, October 1931, pp. 530-534.

The greater part of this article deals with issues relating to preservice training. The question of the extent to which professional preparation of teachers may be left for in-service education is included as an issue.

 Garretson, O. K., "In-Service Training of Teachers in High Schools in Oklahoma." The School Review, 39, 6, June 1931, pp. 449-460.

A study of the use made of five groups of activities in sixtyfour public high schools in Oklahoma that were members of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in May 1930.

 Gist, Arthur S., "Important Points of View in Teacher-Training." Educational Administration and Supervision, 17, 4, April 1931, pp. 269-278.

Takes into account follow-up plans to ensure the success of the inexperienced teacher.

 Haisley, Otto W., "Providing for the Training of Teachers Inservice." National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1931, p. 163 (abstract).

A salary schedule based on university study or foreign travel and a sabbatical leave for one year at half pay has proved valuable in the Ann Arbor schools.

 Hendricks, J. J., "The Inservice Training of Teachers in Small School Systems." National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1931, pp. 171-172 (abstract).

This article contains a list of twenty-three methods that are being used to improve teachers in service. Particular attention is given to the value of teachers' meetings and topics are suggested for such meetings.

12. Hunt, E. A., "Training of Teachers Inservice Through the State Department of Education." Addresses and Proceedings, National Education Association, 1931, pp. 527-528 (abstract).

Urges a continuous program of in-service training as well as one of pre-service training.

 Moore, M. H., "How Can School Administrators Coöperate with Teachers Colleges in the Improvement of Teachers Inservice?" National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1931, pp. 161-162 (abstract).

Three specific methods of coöperation are discussed; namely: (1) furnish teacher-training institutions with data regarding excellencies and shortcomings of graduates; (2) administrators should have large part in stating the philosophy of education and the setting up of standards; and (3) administrators should make practical suggestions to teachers returning to teacher-training institutions for additional training.

 Morrison, J. Cayce, "The Relation between General and Technical Education in the In-Service Training of Teachers." Educational Administration and Supervision, 17, 6, September 1931, pp. 417-425.

An analysis of the fourfold problems of in-service teacher-training with a statement of the functions of the State education department as related to them: (1) should be equipped for research in teacher training; (2) should establish standards for training and certification of all members of the teaching profession; (3) in the exercise of leadership should utilize the best talent of the State; and (4) should assume leadership in the integration of teacher-training institutions and local supervisory staffs in developing an in-service program for training.

 Munn, G. E., "Demonstration Lessons as a Teacher Training Device." National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals Yearbook, Vol. 10, 1931, pp. 276-281.

May be used with beginning teachers, experienced teachers teaching a new method for the first time, teachers weak in methods and techniques, experienced teachers doing experimental work, and teachers who are anxious to acquire new ideas although they are experienced and capable.

 O'Brien, Irene, "Training Teachers Inservice through Supervision from the State Department of Education." Addresses and Proceedings, National Education Association, 1931, pp. 528-529 (abstract).

The Missouri plan which originated in 1923 is brought down to date. It is primarily a plan of rural supervision.

17. Saam, Theodore, "Stimuli being Offered to Promote Growth of Teachers Inservice." National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1931, p. 209 (abstract).

This is a summary of the judgments of three hundred twentyfour successful teachers in seven schools systems in five States. Both high-school and elementary teachers considered summer school and travel as effective means of growth. They suggested that visitations, travel and summer-school allowance, fixed tenure, and observation of demonstration lessons should receive more emphasis.

18. Sanberg, G. H., "Democracy in Promoting the Growth of Teachers Inservice." National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1931, pp. 169-170 (abstract).

An example of the local education association as a means of keeping teachers in touch with the general trend of affairs. One outstanding activity of this association was the study and selection of textbooks.

19. Smith, Norma, "Introducing Newer Technics and Procedures to Rural Teachers." National Education Association, Addresses and Proceedings, 1931, pp. 518-519 (abstract).

The following methods are suggested: (1) acquainting teachers with underlying principles and philosophy; (2) beginning with a few select teachers; (3) providing for demonstration of procedures; (4) making follow-up supervisory visits to individual teachers; and (5) holding group and general meetings for further discussion of principles and evaluation of procedures and results.

20. "Third State Education Conference at University, Alabama."

Alabama School Journal, 49, 1, September 1931, p. 9.

An illustration of the use of a State-wide conference for the in-service training of administrators and teachers.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Miss Florence M. Allen, a graduate of Cortland State Normal School, is now principal of Grove Street School, Freeport, L. I., N. Y. Lyra B. Boyd is a teacher in the elementary schools, Freeport, L. I., N. Y.

Mr. Francis J. Brown received his A.B. from the University of Iowa and his A.M. from Teachers College, Columbia University. At present, Mr. Brown is instructor in education at New York University School of Education.

Dr. Ned H. Dearborn received his Sc.B., A.M., and Ph.D. degrees from Columbia University. At present he is director of New York University Institute of Education.

Mr. T. Dimmick is a teacher in the High School, Port Washington,

L. I., N. Y.

Mr. John W. Dodd holds a bachelor's and a master's degree from Teachers College, Columbia University, and has completed his graduate work at New York University for the doctor's degree with the exception of his dissertation. Mr. Dodd has been superintendent of schools in Freeport since 1925.

Mr. Noble Franklin Greenhill received his A.B. degree from the University of Alabama and his A.M. from Teachers College, Columbia University. Since 1929 Mr. Greenhill has been director of the Division of Educational Administration, Alabama State Department of Education.

Mr. A. F. Mayhew attended Holy Cross College and Yale and New York Universities. Since 1918 Mr. Mayhew has been assistant superintendent of schools in New Haven, Conn.

Mr. William F. Merrill graduated from Colgate University with the Sc.B. degree. Since 1921 he has been senior-high-school principal in

Port Washington, N. Y.

Dr. Alonzo F. Myers received his Sc.B. and A.B. degrees from Tri-State College, Indiana, and his A.M. and Ph.D. degrees from Columbia University. At present Dr. Myers is professor of education in the School of Education of New York University.

Mrs. Josephine Pieper is an instructor in the Institute of Education,

School of Education, New York University.

Mr. Paul D. Schreiber, a graduate of Bucknell University, was principal of secondary schools from 1912 to 1920 and since that time he has been superintendent of schools at Port Washington, N. Y.

Dr. Robert K. Speer received his A.B. degree from Michigan State Normal College and his A.M. and Ph.D. degrees from Columbia University. Since 1928 he has been connected with the School of Education of New York University.

Dr. John W. Withers is dean of the School of Education and professor of educational administration, New York University.





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